

# *Rapeseed meal hydrolysate as substrate for microbial astaxanthin production*

Article

Accepted Version

Harith, Z. T., Charalampopoulos, D. and Chatzifragkou, A.  
(2019) Rapeseed meal hydrolysate as substrate for microbial  
astaxanthin production. *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 151.  
107330. ISSN 1369-703X doi:  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bej.2019.107330> Available at  
<https://centaur.reading.ac.uk/85546/>

It is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from the work. See [Guidance on citing](#).

To link to this article DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bej.2019.107330>

Publisher: Elsevier

All outputs in CentAUR are protected by Intellectual Property Rights law, including copyright law. Copyright and IPR is retained by the creators or other copyright holders. Terms and conditions for use of this material are defined in the [End User Agreement](#).

[www.reading.ac.uk/centaur](http://www.reading.ac.uk/centaur)

**CentAUR**

Central Archive at the University of Reading

Reading's research outputs online

**Rapeseed meal hydrolysate as substrate for microbial astaxanthin production**

Zuharlida Tuan Harith<sup>a,b</sup>, Dimitris Charalampopoulos<sup>b</sup>, Afroditi Chatzifragkou<sup>b\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Faculty of Agro Based Industry, Universiti Malaysia Kelantan Jeli Campus, 17600 Jeli, Kelantan, Malaysia

<sup>b</sup> Department of Food and Nutritional Sciences, University of Reading, Whiteknights, RG6 6AP, Reading, United Kingdom

\*Corresponding author: [a.chatzifragkou@reading.ac.uk](mailto:a.chatzifragkou@reading.ac.uk)

## 1    **Abstract**

2    Rapeseed meal, a by-product of oil processing industry, was evaluated as a substrate for astaxanthin  
3    production by the yeast *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous* DSMZ 5626. Four commercial enzymes  
4    were tested at different concentrations (1 – 15 %, v/v) for their ability to break down the cellulosic  
5    and hemicellulosic compounds of rapeseed meal into fermentable sugars. Viscozyme® L and  
6    cellulase demonstrated the highest glucose recovery yields (47 – 52%, w/w for 15 % (v/v) of  
7    enzyme loading) with 7- 11 g/l of net glucose released in the hydrolysates. Pectinase and  
8    Accellerase® hydrolysates supported the best cell growth and astaxanthin production in batch shake  
9    flask cultures, with maximum biomass of 26 g/l and 15 g/l, respectively, and astaxanthin yields  
10    ( $Y_{P/X}$ ) of 258 to 332 µg per g of biomass. In batch bioreactor trials, pectinase hydrolysates resulted  
11    in high biomass (42 g/l) and astaxanthin production (11 mg/l) aided by the presence of glycerol  
12    (originating from the enzyme formulation) which served as additional energy and carbon source.  
13    Finally, simple glass beads disruption lead into satisfactory astaxanthin extraction (95 %, w/w) in  
14    acetone. The findings of this study generate knowledge towards scale-up potential of microbial  
15    astaxanthin production using rapeseed meal hydrolysate as fermentation feedstock.

16

17    **Keywords:** Astaxanthin, rapeseed meal, fermentation, hydrolysate, extraction, *Xanthophyllomyces*  
18    *dendrorhous*

19

## 1    **1    Introduction**

2            Oilseed crops, such as rapeseed, sunflower and soybean, are extensively cultivated for their  
3    oil. The European Union (EU) is the largest producer of rapeseed with a reported total production of  
4    32 million tonnes in 2015/16 and these figures are expected to increase annually [1]. In the United  
5    Kingdom (UK), rapeseed (*Brassica napus*) is a major oilseed crop, which is cultivated alongside  
6    sunflower with a reported total of 579 kHa of land planted in 2016 [2].

7            The oil extraction process leaves behind a solid residue, known as rapeseed meal, which is  
8    generally underutilised and considered as a low value by-product [3]. The world production of  
9    rapeseed meal in 2016/17 was estimated at 40 million tonnes, with 13.9 million tonnes generated in  
10   the EU [1], a rise linked with intense rapeseed farming to meet the increasing demand for vegetable  
11   oils. This in turn suggests that opportunities still exist for developing alternative uses for rapeseed  
12   meal beyond animal feed [4]. Currently, rapeseed meal is used as an organic fertiliser and as a  
13   supplement in livestock feed due to its high protein content (26-31%) [5,6]. However, its protein is  
14   not easily digested by monogastric animals compared to other protein sources such as soy meal,  
15   thus rendering it less valuable as a feed component [7]. Moreover, rapeseed meal may contain anti-  
16   nutritional compounds such as glucosinolates, erucic acid and phenols, thus making it less  
17   favourable for livestock [4,8].

18           There is significant potential for the valorisation of rapeseed meal, particularly as a substrate  
19   for microbial bioconversions, since besides protein, it also contains large amounts of carbohydrates  
20   (36-36%, w/w) [6,9] as well as minerals such as calcium, phosphorous and iron [6,10]. The  
21   utilisation of rapeseed meal in microbial bioconversions is not a single step process, since most  
22   microorganisms lack the necessary enzymes for cellulose/hemicellulose hydrolysis. As such, the  
23   transformation of rapeseed meal into a fermentation feedstock requires the application of  
24   physicochemical and/or enzymatic approaches, aiming to break down the complex structure of the  
25   biomass and concurrently generate sugar and nitrogen components that are directly assimilable by

1 microorganisms [7,10]. The rapeseed meal hydrolysates can be potentially used for several  
2 microbial conversions, including the production of platform and speciality chemicals such as  
3 succinic acid [11], 1,3-propanediol [10], biopolymers (poly-hydroxy-alkanoates)[12] and lipids [7].

4 Astaxanthin belongs to the xanthophyll group of carotenoids and is a powerful antioxidant,  
5 which acts by donating electrons from the conjugated double bonds and reacts with free radicals to  
6 produce high stability products and terminate the free radical chain reaction in a wide range of  
7 living organisms [13]. The application of an external source of antioxidants such as astaxanthin is  
8 necessary for human body to regulate the free radicals and suppress the occurrence of oxidative  
9 stress which subsequently can alter lipids, proteins and DNA, as well as trigger human diseases  
10 [14]. Astaxanthin also possesses anti-inflammatory activities and has potential as a therapeutic  
11 agent against cardiovascular diseases in humans [15]. Additionally, astaxanthin is used in  
12 aquaculture as feed additive because it contributes to the attractive colouration in the bodies of  
13 salmons, shrimps and crustaceans as well as maintains their growth and survival [16,17]. Currently,  
14 the commercial demand for astaxanthin is met by its synthetic production (petroleum derived) via  
15 the Wittig reaction and Grignard condensation methods [18]. However, natural astaxanthin is more  
16 favourable as it has been reported to possess high stability due to its esterified nature, which  
17 prevents oxidation and thus exhibits prolonged shelf life [19]. The natural source of astaxanthin has  
18 been approved to be used as food colouring (E161j) in the EU. Currently, the naturally produced  
19 astaxanthin by microalgae (*Haematococcus pluvialis*) and yeasts (*Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous*)  
20 face a competitive market price compared to synthetically produced astaxanthin due to their  
21 complex production process. The value of natural astaxanthin is estimated around USD 2500–7000  
22 per kg, depending on its purity, as opposed to the value of synthetically-produced astaxanthin,  
23 which is estimated around USD 2000 per kg [20,21].

24 Studies aiming to extract rapeseed protein have been conducted using various methods such as  
25 commercial cellulolytic enzymes [22] as well as the use of the proteolytic fungus, *Aspergillus*  
26 *oryzae* [10]. However, studies involving carbohydrates hydrolysis from rapeseed meal are scarce in

1 comparison to protein hydrolysis [22,23]. Thus, the aim of this study was to enzymatically  
2 hydrolyse the lignocellulosic components of rapeseed meal and produce a nutrient-rich hydrolysate,  
3 which was subsequently evaluated as a fermentation substrate for astaxanthin production by the  
4 yeast *X. dendrorhous* DSMZ 5626. In addition, the application of glass beads was investigated as a  
5 simple method for the extraction of intracellular astaxanthin from yeast cells.

## 7 **2 Materials and Methodology**

### 8 **2.1 Microorganism and Growth Medium**

9 The yeast strain *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous* DSMZ 5626 was used in this study and was  
10 purchased from the Leibniz Institute DSMZ, Germany. The strain was proliferated and maintained  
11 in Yeast and Mold (YM) media containing (in g/L): yeast extract, (3.0); malt extract, (3.0); peptone  
12 from soybean, (5.0); glucose, (10.0); and agar (15).

### 13 **2.2 Materials**

14 The rapeseed meal used in this study was kindly provided by Stainswick Farm (Oxfordshire,  
15 UK) and was generated via cold pressing oil extraction process. Rapeseed meal samples were  
16 grinded using a dry-grinder and sieved to obtain uniform sized particles (< 850 µm). The remaining  
17 oil in the meal was removed using a supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> extraction rig (SciMed, UK) at 60 °C and 300  
18 bar pressure for 1 h, with ethanol (10%, v/v) as co-solvent. The residual defatted meal was kept at 4  
19 °C prior to use.

### 20 **2.3 Enzymatic Hydrolysis**

21 Enzymatic hydrolysis of rapeseed meal was performed using four different commercial  
22 enzymes, namely Accellerase® 1500 (DuPont), Viscozyme® (Novozymes), cellulase from  
23 *Aspergillus niger* (Sigma-Aldrich) and pectinase (Novozymes) (Table 1). Enzymatic hydrolysis was

1 carried out in 2 ml Eppendorf tubes containing 0.150 g rapeseed meal with different enzyme  
2 concentrations (1-15%, v/v). Distilled water was used to make up the volume to 1.5 ml. Optimum  
3 temperatures for each enzyme and adequate mixing (1600 rpm) were maintained in a thermomixer  
4 F 1.5 (Eppendorf, Germany). The reaction time varied from 2 h to 24 h and the reactions were  
5 terminated by incubation at 95 °C for 10 min. The mixtures were then centrifuged at 10 845 x g  
6 (Heraeus Multifuge X3R, Thermo Fisher, USA) for 10 min and the supernatants were collected and  
7 analysed for sugar composition using HPLC as described in section 2.7. The schematic diagram of  
8 the experimental procedure is illustrated in Figure 1.

## 9 2.4 Rapeseed meal pre-treatment

10 The thermal pre-treatment of rapeseed meal was carried out prior to enzymatic hydrolysis  
11 using the commercial enzyme Accellerase 1500®. 10% (w/v) of rapeseed meal were added to 30 ml  
12 of distilled water and subjected to autoclaving at different temperatures (126 and 135 °C, pressure  
13 ~2 bar) for 15, 30 or 60 min. Once the heat treatment was completed, 10% (v/v) of enzyme was  
14 added to the mixture and hydrolysis was carried out at 50 °C for 24 h under continuous stirring (250  
15 rpm) in an orbital shaker (GFL, 3015, SciQuip, UK).

## 16 2.5 Microbial Fermentations

### 17 2.5.1 Shake flask fermentation

18 In order to investigate the suitability of rapeseed meal hydrolysates as substrates for *X.*  
19 *dendrorhous* growth, batch shake flask experiments were conducted. Rapeseed meal hydrolysates  
20 were prepared using different enzymes under identified optimised conditions. In one case, rapeseed  
21 meal was thermally pre-treated, by autoclaving at 126°C for 30 min prior to enzyme addition (10 %,   
22 v/v of Accellerase® 1500). The produced hydrolysates were subsequently filter-sterilised using 0.25  
23 µm Millipore stericup filters, prior to the fermentation. Suspensions of *X. dendrorhous* pre-cultures  
24 were then aseptically added to the 50 ml of hydrolysates in 250 ml conical flasks to obtain an initial



1 OD of ~0.1. All flask fermentations were carried out for 5 days at 20 °C under constant agitation  
2 (250 rpm), in duplicate. Data shown are the mean values of these measurements.

### 3 **2.5.2 Batch fermentation (Separate hydrolysis and fermentation)**

4 150 g of defatted rapeseed meal was heat pretreated in a 2-litre glass bottle containing 1.35  
5 litre of distilled water in an autoclave at 126 °C for 30 min. After cooling down, 150 ml of enzyme  
6 (10% v/v) were added to the vessel (giving a total of solids content 10% w/v). Enzymatic hydrolysis  
7 was carried out in an orbital shaker (GFL 3015, SciQuip, UK) at 250 rpm at 50 °C for 24 h. Heat  
8 inactivation was applied at 95 °C for 10 min in a water bath (GD 120, Grant, Cambridge). The  
9 produced hydrolysates were then filter-sterilised using 0.25 µm Millipore stericup unit (EMD  
10 Millipore Stericup™) and were aseptically transferred to a 2-litre bioreactor (BIOSTAT B,  
11 Sartorius AG, German) with a working volume of 1.5 litres, previously autoclaved at 121°C for 20  
12 min. Fermentation conditions were as follows; temperature, 20 °C; agitation speed, 600 rpm;  
13 aeration, 1 l/min. The pH of the hydrolysates was maintained at pH 6 throughout the fermentation  
14 by automatic additions of NaOH (2 M) via a peristaltic pump.

### 15 **2.5.3 Batch fermentation (Pre-hydrolysis and fermentation)**

16 In pre-hydrolysis and fermentation (pSSF) approach, enzymatic hydrolysis and subsequent  
17 fermentation of rapeseed meal were performed in one reactor. Two different enzymes were  
18 separately tested in this study (pectinase and Accellerase® 1500). Firstly, 150 g/l of rapeseed meal  
19 were added to the reactor with 1.35 litre of distilled water. The bioreactor was then subjected to  
20 autoclaving at 126 °C for 30 min. After cooling, 150 ml of enzyme were added to the fermentation  
21 vessel (giving a total of solids content 10% w/v) and the hydrolysis step was initiated at 50 °C for  
22 24 h. Agitation was controlled at 250 rpm during this period. Once the hydrolysis step was  
23 completed, the vessel was cooled down to 20 °C followed by inoculation of 5% (v/v) of *X.*  
24 *dendrorhous* pre-culture suspension. Fermentation conditions were as follows; temperature, 20 °C;  
25 pH 6; agitation speed, 600 rpm; aeration, 1 l/min.

## 1    **2.6    Glass bead / solvent extraction**

2            Approximately 30 mg freeze dried *X. dendrorhous* cells were prepared in 2 ml Eppendorf  
3    tubes. 0.3 g of glass bead (diameter 1 mm) were added to the vials followed by addition of 1 ml  
4    organic solvent. The yeast and beads suspension were mixed at 2000 rpm for 10 min in a  
5    ThermoMixer C (Eppendorf, **Germany**) to ensure similar rate of mixing for each sample. **The**  
6    **extraction temperature was controlled at 25 °C.** Subsequently, 0.1 ml of NaOH (20% w/v) was  
7    added to the mixture, followed by further mixing for 5 min at 2000 rpm in a ThermoMixer C. The  
8    aqueous and organic phases were separated by centrifugation at 5423 x g for 5 min and organic  
9    phase (top layer) was collected for astaxanthin measurement by spectrophotometer. The organic  
10    solvents evaluated in this experiment were ethanol (EtOH, 99.8%, MERCK), methanol (MeOH,  
11    100%, Fisher Scientific), acetone (100%, Merck), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, 100% Sigma-  
12    Aldrich) and mixture of acetone: DMSO (1:1); distilled water was used as control/

## 13    **2.7    Solubility of Astaxanthin in Solvents**

14            The solubility of astaxanthin in organic solvents was tested. As such, ethanol (EtOH, 99.8%,  
15    MERCK), methanol (MeOH, 100%, Fisher Scientific), acetone (100%, Merck), dimethyl sulfoxide  
16    (DMSO, 100% Sigma-Aldrich), mixture of acetone:DMSO (1:1) as well as water were used as  
17    solvents. Approximately 10 mg of pure astaxanthin (Sigma Aldrich) were added to 1 ml of solvent  
18    in 2 ml (Eppendorf) tubes and were then agitated at 1200 rpm for 24 h at 25°C in a thermomixer  
19    (Eppendorf). If a clear solution was observed, then additional amounts of astaxanthin (~ 2 mg) were  
20    added to the mixture until there was a visual indication of undissolved material. The obtained  
21    solvent/astaxanthin mixtures were diluted 100 times in methanol and filtered through a 0.2µm  
22    Polyvinyl Difluoride (PVDF) membrane filter. Finally, the concentration of astaxanthin in different  
23    types of solvents was determined using HPLC analysis.

## 2.8 Analytical Methods

The carbohydrate content of the rapeseed meal was modified based on analytical procedure provided by National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL/TP-510-42618) [24]. Briefly, 300 mg of rapeseed meal was pre-hydrolysed with 3 ml of 72 % (v/v) H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at 30 °C for 1 h. Subsequently, 84 ml of distilled water were added to the mixture in order to dilute the sulphuric acid content to 4 % (v/v) and hydrolysis was carried out at 121 °C for 30 min. The obtained mixtures were neutralised with calcium carbonate to pH 5-6 and were analysed using a High Performance Anion Exchange Chromatography with Pulsed Amperometric Detection (HPAEC-PAD) system (Dionex, Thermo, UK). Samples were passed through a CarboPac PA1 column (4 x 250mm) at a flow rate of 1 ml/min and the mobile phase consisted of 0.016 mM of Sodium Hydroxide (NaOH) (eluent A) and 0.5 mM of Sodium Acetate (NaOAc) (eluent B) in a gradient method. Operating conditions were as follows: Sample volume: 20µl; mobile phase: 0.5 M NaOH, 0.1 M NaOAc; column temperature: 25°C; flow rate: 1 ml/min; gradient conditions: T<sub>0-40</sub>, 100% A, T<sub>41-50</sub>, 60% A, 40% B, T<sub>51</sub>, 100% A.

The protein and fat content were measured by Kjeldahl and Soxhlet method, respectively (AOAC, 1990) and the lignin content was determined according to NREL protocol [24]. After hydrolysis with 72 % (w/w) H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> for 1 h at 30°C, samples were hydrolysed with 1.0 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at 121 °C for 30 min in an autoclave. Samples were then filtered, and the filtrate was measured for acid soluble lignin spectrophotometrically at 240 nm. Acid Soluble Lignin (ASL) was calculated according to equation 1 (Eq 1). The washed residue was dried at 100 °C for 18 h. Subsequently, the dried samples were placed in a furnace (500 °C; 5 h) and the residue was weighed and classified as acid insoluble lignin. Total lignin was calculated as the sum of acid soluble and acid insoluble lignin.

$$\% ASL = \frac{A \times DF \times V(ml)}{\varepsilon \times P (g)} \times 100 \quad Eq 1$$

Where,  $A$  is the absorbance at 240 nm,  $DF$  is the dilution factor,  $V$  is the volume of filtrate,  $\epsilon$  is the coefficient at 30 and  $P$  is the weight of biomass.

In the case of yeast fermentations, samples of 2 ml were periodically withdrawn at regular time intervals. 1 ml of sample was added into a pre-weight tube and centrifuged at  $10845 \times g$  for 10 min. The supernatant was collected for sugar and ethanol analysis via HPLC. The pellet was washed twice with distilled water and frozen at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  prior to freeze drying (Virtis Sentry 2.0, UK). Biomass was measured by weight difference. In bioreactor experiments that involved pre-hydrolysis and fermentation steps, cell growth was monitored by total plate count method. Hence, 100  $\mu\text{l}$  of serially diluted samples were plated on Yeast and Mold agar plates (YM agar), incubated at  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 5 days and biomass was expressed in CFU/ ml. The sugar composition of the hydrolysates was determined by HPLC analysis (Agilent 1260 Infinity) with an Aminex HPX-87H column coupled to a differential refractometer and a diode array detector. Operating conditions were as follows: Sample volume: 20 $\mu\text{l}$ ; mobile phase: 5 mM  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ; flow rate: 0.6 ml/min; column temperature:  $65\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Quantification of monosaccharides (glucose, galactose, xylose, arabinose), uronic acids and ethanol were achieved on the basis of standard curves, which were conducted using standard solutions.

Total carotenoid was quantified using Dimethyl Sulfoxide (DMSO) disruption method [26]. Briefly, 1 ml of Dimethyl Sulfoxide (DMSO) was preheated at  $55\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and added to the freeze dried biomass, followed by vortexing for 30-40 sec. Subsequently, 0.2 ml of 20 % sodium chloride (NaCl) and 1.0 ml of acetone were added to the mixture to extract the intracellular carotenoids. The aqueous and organic phases were separated after centrifugation at  $5423 \times g$  for 5 min. The extraction process was repeated until a colourless biomass was obtained. The organic phases were then pooled together, and their absorbance was measured at 480 nm in a spectrophotometer. Values

1 were then divided by the extinction coefficient of 2150. The equation for total carotenoids  
2 concentration is given in equation 2 (Eq 2) [26].

$$\text{Carotenoid content } (\mu\text{g/g}) = \frac{A \times V \text{ (ml)} \times 10^4}{A_{1\text{cm}}^{1\%} \times P \text{ (g)}} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

3 Where,  $A$  is the absorbance at 480 nm,  $V$  is the volume, and  $P$  is the weight of biomass and  $A_{1\text{cm}}^{1\%}$  is  
4 the coefficient of 2150 (based on determination using synthetic astaxanthin) [26].

## 5 **2.9 Scanning Electron Microscopy**

6 The morphology of the cell biomass samples prior and after extraction were analysed using  
7 Quanta FEG 600 Environmental Scanning Electron Microscopy instrument (FEI Co. Inc.,  
8 Hillsboro, Oregon). Samples were mounted onto SEM stubs using carbon tape and then sputter  
9 coated with a thin layer of gold to prevent charging during imaging. The parameters used for  
10 imaging were: 20 kV of accelerating voltage, 4.0 spot size and a working distance approximately 10  
11 – 12 mm. Images were recorded under vacuum at 6000 x magnification.

## 12 **3 Results and Discussion**

### 13 **3.1 Compositional analysis of rapeseed meal**

14 During cold pressing, rapeseed undergoes a mild oil extraction process (< 40 °C) without the  
15 use of solvents. Approximately 50-60 % of the initial oil is normally extracted from the seed and in  
16 correspondence [27], the rapeseed meal used in this study contained substantial amounts of oil (16.7  
17 ± 0.1 %). Table 2 shows the composition of rapeseed meal on a dry basis. The rapeseed meal was  
18 rich in protein and carbohydrates, accounting for 26 % and 35 % (w/w) of each, respectively. The

1 protein content was lower than that reported in the literature [6] (i.e., 30 %, w/w), possibly due to  
2 differences among rapeseed cultivars as well as due to differences in the oil extraction process [28].

3 The carbohydrate content was similar to that reported in the literature accounting for 36 %  
4 (w/w) [6]. The monosaccharide composition indicated that the main polysaccharides present in the  
5 rapeseed meal were cellulose, hemicellulose and pectin. Glucose was the most abundant  
6 monosaccharide, i.e., equal to 20.2 % (w/w). The arabinose content was ~ 6 % (w/w), the highest  
7 among the other sugars that are normally present in hemicellulose, namely galactose and xylose. It  
8 was reported that arabinose is the major hemicellulosic sugar present in rapeseed meal, suggesting  
9 the presence of arabinans, which might be attached in the side chains of pectin [6]. Besides, the  
10 presence of xylose and arabinose probably originates from arabinoxylan structure in rapeseed meal.  
11 Arabinoxylan is a hemicellulose consisting of a linear backbone of  $\beta$ -1,4 xylose residues with  
12 arabinose substitution [29].

13 The presence of galactose (2.9 %, w/w) could indicate the presence of galactomannan and  
14 arabinogalactan in the rapeseed meal. Moreover, the presence of galacturonic acid (2.5 %, w/w) and  
15 glucuronic acid (0.6 %, w/w) further supported the presence of pectin in the rapeseed meal. Pectins  
16 have been reported as major polysaccharides in rapeseed meal apart from hemicellulose and  
17 cellulose [6, 30]. Small amounts of fructose (0.3 % w/w) were detected in the acid treated fraction  
18 of the rapeseed meal, in agreement with previously reported data in the literature [4,30]. In the  
19 water soluble fractions of rapeseed meal, small amounts of sucrose were also detected (data not  
20 shown). Sucrose and fructose have been previously reported in the water soluble fractions of  
21 rapeseed meal and normally act as an energy reserve in plants [4,6].

22 The analysis indicated the presence of ~ 18 % (w/w) of total lignin, consisting of  $1.9 \pm 0.1$  %  
23 (w/w) of acid soluble lignin and  $16.1 \pm 4.6$  % (w/w) of Klason lignin. The amount of total lignin in  
24 rapeseed meal was similar to those (~16 %) reported by studies investigating the production of  
25 biodiesel from rapeseed meal [31,32].

## 1    **3.2    Enzymatic hydrolysis of non-treated and thermally pre-treated rapeseed meal**

2            Rapeseed meal contained high amounts of carbohydrates and protein, however, most  
3    microorganisms cannot assimilate these compounds directly as they usually lack of cellulolytic and  
4    proteolytic enzymes in their cluster [10]. Therefore, commercial enzymes were employed, targeting  
5    the conversion of cellulose and hemicellulose into monomeric sugars (glucose, galactose, xylose  
6    and arabinose). The generated hydrolysates were subsequently tested for their capability to support  
7    astaxanthin production by the yeast *X. dendrorhous*.

8            Figure 2 shows the effect of different enzyme concentrations on the release of monomeric  
9    sugars after 24 h of hydrolysis using four different commercial enzymes (cellulase, pectinase,  
10    Viscozyme® L and Accellerase® 1500). **The sugar yield was defined as g of sugars released after**  
11    **24 h of hydrolysis per g of sugar originally present in the rapeseed meal.** The highest glucose yield  
12    was observed by Viscozyme® L (53 %, w/w), followed by cellulase (47 %, w/w), pectinase (41.8  
13    %, w/w) and Accellerase® 1500 (30 %, w/w). Viscozyme® L is a multi-enzyme complex  
14    containing mixtures of cellulases, hemicellulases and xylanase and has also a proteolytic activity  
15    [22,33,34]. Hence, the synergistic effect of these enzymes rendered the rapeseed meal structure  
16    more accessible to enzymatic attack, resulting in the production of a hydrolysate rich in cellulose-  
17    and hemicellulose-derived monomeric sugars. Galactose and arabinose were obtained at their  
18    highest yields when Viscozyme® L was used, equal to 74 % (w/w) and 79 % (w/w), respectively  
19    (Figure 2A).

20            According to the manufacturer's datasheet (Sigma Aldrich), cellulase contained mainly  
21    endo- and exo- cellulases, thus their documented synergistic activities led to the effective hydrolysis  
22    of cellulose and  $\beta$ -glucans [35,36]. Endo-cellulases attack the  $\beta$ -1,4-glycosidic bonds randomly,  
23    targeting the amorphous region along the cellulose structure and produce either cellobiose or  
24    glucose. On the other hand, exo-cellulases act on the linkages from the non-reducing end of  
25    cellulose releasing cellobiose as the main reaction product [36]. Similar patterns were observed for

1 the hemicellulose-derived monosaccharides in this study. Generally, increased enzyme  
2 concentrations resulted in increased amounts of galactose, xylose and arabinose in the hydrolysate.  
3 Xylose was detected in all hydrolysates except for those produced by cellulase (Figure 2C).

4 In terms of sugar concentrations in the hydrolysates, glucose and galactose were mainly  
5 present. In the case of Viscozyme® L hydrolysates (Figure 2A), the total sugar concentration when  
6 high enzyme loadings (15 %, v/v) were used was ~74 g/l, with glucose being ~ 26 g/l and fructose ~  
7 17 g/l. It must be noted that approximately ~16.5 g/l of glucose and ~17 g/l of fructose were derived  
8 from the enzymatic hydrolysis of sucrose that was present in the Viscozyme® L formulation and is  
9 generally used as a preservative in enzyme formulations. In the case of pectinase (Figure 2B), the  
10 total concentration of monomeric sugars in the hydrolysates accounted for approximately 20 g/l,  
11 with glucose and galactose being the principle sugars. However, 66 g/l of glycerol was also detected  
12 in the hydrolysates that originated from the enzyme formulation itself, which could potentially act  
13 as an additional carbon source for microbial fermentation. As for cellulase (Figure 2C), the total  
14 sugar concentration was ~76 g/l, the majority of which was glucose (71 g/l), although ~64 g/l of  
15 glucose were attributed to the enzyme formulation. In Accellerase® 1500 treated hydrolysates, 11  
16 g/l of total sugars were present, with glucose (~ 6 g/l) and galactose (~4 g/l) being the most  
17 prominent sugars. The synergistic action of enzyme mixtures assists in further break down of  
18 carbohydrate polymers, as indicated by the action of pectinase on rapeseed meal. This was  
19 demonstrated by a greater hydrolysis yield of rapeseed meal, as 41 % (w/w) of glucose was  
20 extracted using pectinase enzyme, which contained a mixture of side activities including cellulase  
21 and hemicellulase. In contrast, Accellerase® 1500 treatment that did not exert pectinase activity,  
22 resulted in lower glucose yields (30 %, w/w). The enzymatic hydrolysis of rapeseed meal has been  
23 widely reported on the rapeseed protein extraction rather than on carbohydrates. Three different  
24 enzymes (Celluclast, Viscozyme® L and Pectinase G) were tested, both singularly and in  
25 combination, in order to hydrolyse dilute acid pretreated rapeseed meal that was subsequently used  
26 for succinic acid production by *Actinobacillus succinogenes* [11]. Around 28.6 g/l of total sugars



were released from rapeseed meal after Pectinase G (2 %, w/w) hydrolysis that consisted of sucrose, glucose, fructose and arabinose [11]. In another study, Viscozyme® L was found to assist in protein hydrolysis from rapeseed meal with high protein yield (68 %) and total carbohydrates yield (80 % of total reducing sugars) [22].

Due to the absence of additional preservatives in the formulation, the Accellerase® 1500 enzyme was chosen for further investigation, as the composition of its hydrolysate is a direct reflection of rapeseed meal derived sugars. As such, a thermal pre-treatment step was carried out to evaluate its effectiveness towards enhancing the enzymatic hydrolysis of rapeseed meal. Table 3 presents the composition of rapeseed meal hydrolysates following heat pre-treatment and enzymatic digestion by Accellerase 1500 (10 % v/v). Heat pre-treatment at 126 °C for 30 min was found to significantly increase ( $p < 0.05$ ) glucose hydrolysis yield by 17 % compared to control (no pre-treatment). However, higher temperature conditions (135 °C for 30 min) resulted in lower sugar yields compared to those at 126 °C. This was most likely due to the more prominent degradation of glucose to furfural and 5-hydroxymethyl-2-furaldehyde (HMF) under higher temperature in the presence of mild acid conditions. The acidic environment is generated due to the partial acetylation of hemicellulose, leading to the hydrolysis of acetyl ester bonds into acetic acid during the heat pre-treatment process [54]. Similar to glucose, the recovery of the hemicellulosic-derived sugars also decreased when higher pre-treatment temperatures were applied.

### **3.3 Microbial Production of Astaxanthin in Rapeseed Meal Hydrolysates**

#### **3.3.1 Batch Shake flask fermentations**

A key objective of this study was to investigate the suitability of rapeseed meal hydrolysates as fermentation media for the microbial production of astaxanthin. Therefore, rapeseed meal

1 hydrolysates produced by the action of the four commercial enzymes were initially tested in flask  
2 cultures for their capability to support *X. dendrorhous* growth and astaxanthin production.

3 As shown in Table 4, significantly different cell biomass and astaxanthin production values  
4 were obtained depending upon the hydrolysate. In terms of total biomass and astaxanthin  
5 production, the best substrate was the pectinase hydrolysate (~26 g/l of cell biomass, 6.7 mg/l of  
6 astaxanthin), whereas Viscozyme® hydrolysate had the poorest performance (~3 g/l of cell  
7 biomass, 0.4 mg/l of astaxanthin). However, in terms of biomass yield on substrate consumption  
8 ( $Y_{X/S}$ ) and astaxanthin yield on cell biomass ( $Y_{P/X}$ ), the highest values (0.84 g/g and 332 µg/g,  
9 respectively) were obtained when Accellerase® 1500 hydrolysate was used. In the pectinase  
10 hydrolysate, the  $Y_{P/X}$  value was 258 µg/g, whereas, lower values were obtained for the Viscozyme®  
11 hydrolysate (156 µg/g) and the Cellulase hydrolysate (71 µg/g). The low astaxanthin concentrations  
12 obtained in the Viscozyme® and cellulase hydrolysates were most likely associated with the  
13 relatively high hexose concentrations (> 50 g/l). Such high sugar concentrations can initiate  
14 Crabtree effect in *X. dendrorhous* which changes the yeast metabolism from respiration to alcoholic  
15 fermentation, leading to ethanol production, which inhibits cell growth and astaxanthin  
16 accumulation in the cells [37–39]. Indeed, in the case of the cellulase hydrolysate, the highest  
17 amount of ethanol was produced (6.9 g/l) and the second highest in the case of Viscozyme® (3.8  
18 g/l). In the former, the high initial glucose concentration the hydrolysate (45 g/l) benefited cell  
19 biomass production (14 g/l) but compromised the production of astaxanthin during secondary  
20 metabolism (1.1 mg/l); correspondingly, a similar trend was observed in the latter.

21 However, in the case of the pectinase hydrolysate, no ethanol was detected, a fact which  
22 indirectly suggested that the Crabtree effect was suppressed as glycerol was the predominant carbon  
23 source in the medium rather than hexose sugars. As for Accellerase® 1500 hydrolysis, two types of  
24 rapeseed meal samples were used (crude samples and thermal pretreated samples). Between these  
25 two samples, different fermentation results were obtained where pretreated samples resulted in

1 higher biomass (12 g/l) and astaxanthin production (3.2 mg/l). It is interesting to note that ethanol  
2 was detected in this fermentation only in trace amounts (< 1 g/l).

3 The involvement of two possible mechanisms in the induction of pigmentation by ethanol has  
4 been proposed before [40]. The first proposed mechanism involves the enzyme aldehyde oxidase  
5 that generates superoxide radicals, which are responsible for the induction of carotenoid synthesis.  
6 The second mechanism is the conversion of ethanol by alcohol dehydrogenase to acetate; in the  
7 presence of energy (ATP), acetate can then be converted to acetyl CoA, which is the major  
8 precursor for both the Tricarboxylic Acid (TCA) cycle and the mevalonate pathway, the latter being  
9 responsible for carotenoid production [40,41]. In addition, ethanol might induce the production of  
10 pigments by inducing the expression of phytoene  $\beta$ -carotene synthase (crtYB) and astaxanthin  
11 synthase (crtS) genes, which are responsible for the production of carotenoids in mevalonate  
12 pathway [40]. The observed decrease in the ethanol concentration indicated the presence of alcohol  
13 dehydrogenase in this particular *X. dendrorhous* strain and the generated acetyl-CoA was used for  
14 astaxanthin synthesis (hence the increase in astaxanthin concentration during the stationary phase)  
15 rather than for the production of biomass through the TCA cycle.

16 Figure **Error! Reference source not found.**3 depicts the kinetic profile of *X. dendrorhous*  
17 cultivated in the pectinase hydrolysate in batch flasks fermentations. The pectinase hydrolysate  
18 consisted of ~15.7 g/l of sugars (glucose, galactose, xylose and arabinose) as well as 40 g/l of  
19 glycerol, which was originally present in the enzyme formulation. All sugars were utilised by the  
20 cells, with glucose being the most preferred one (hence utilised first), followed by hemicellulose  
21 derived sugars. Once all sugars were exhausted from the hydrolysate, **glycerol was utilised as an**  
22 **energy and carbon source for biomass production and astaxanthin accumulation.** In contrast to the  
23 Accellerase® 1500 hydrolysate, the cells did not experience a lag phase in the pectinase  
24 hydrolysate. The cells continued to grow throughout the fermentation period (1 h - 120 h) and  
25 showed a growth pattern similar to diauxic growth, reflecting the sequential consumption of sugars  
26 and glycerol (Fig. 3B). The cell biomass achieved in the case of the pectinase hydrolysate was the

1 highest amongst all hydrolysates (~ 26 g/l). This was due to the relatively low sugar concentration  
2 and the fact the glycerol, which was present in substantial amounts does not initiate a Crabtree  
3 effect. Astaxanthin was produced throughout the fermentation (including during the glycerol  
4 consumption phase) reaching 6.7 mg/l, significantly higher than in the case of the two Accellerase®  
5 1500 hydrolysates (2.7 and 3.2 mg/l) although the astaxanthin yield was slightly lower (Table 4).  
6 The reason for this could be the fact that in the case of the Accellerase® 1500 hydrolysates, small  
7 amounts of ethanol were produced which (as discussed above) can potentially stimulate astaxanthin  
8 production, whereas in the pectinase hydrolysate fermentation ethanol was not detected. Another  
9 reason for the lower astaxanthin yield could be the absence of certain minerals in the pectinase  
10 hydrolysate, which are important for carotenoid production [42]. More specifically, several metals  
11 including zinc, iron, copper and magnesium have been reported to act as carotenoid inducers in  
12 certain yeast species such as *Rhodotorula glutinis* and *Rhodotorula graminis* [43]. Moreover, high  
13 levels of antinutritional components such as glucosinolates and phenols, which are present in  
14 rapeseed meal might also inhibit carotenoid synthesis [44].

15 To our knowledge, no studies are currently available in the literature investigating the use of  
16 rapeseed meal for the growth of *X. dendrorhous*. However, previous studies have reported that *X.*  
17 *dendrorhous* was able to grow well on enzymatic hydrolysates of wood supplemented with glucose  
18 and produce under optimised conditions approximately 1.8 mg of total carotenoids/l [45]. In this  
19 study, the rapeseed meal hydrolysates were able to support higher astaxanthin production and high  
20 astaxanthin yields, indicating that this medium contained sufficient nutrients for optimal cell  
21 growth. In a different study, 5% molasses supplemented with urea (30 g/l) and sodium phosphate  
22 (4.5 g/l) were used to cultivate *X. dendrorhous* GM807 in shake flasks. The use of molasses  
23 demonstrated positive effects of yeast growth (3.5 g/l), but not on the astaxanthin formation (105  
24 µg/g) [46]. Besides that, a mutant strain of *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous* was cultivated in a  
25 Yucca plant-based medium supplemented with date juice in fed-batch fermentation system and  
26 resulted to very high cell biomass (39 g/l), astaxanthin production (24 mg/l) and astaxanthin yield

(600 µg/g) [47]. This indicates the potential to genetically engineer *X. dendrorhous* strains in order to achieve high conversion yields, which will render the potential commercialisation of the microbial production of astaxanthin from low value agri-food materials such as rapeseed meal more economically viable.

### 3.3.2 Batch fermentations (Separate hydrolysis and fermentation)

Fermentations were carried out in a 2-l stirred tank bioreactor to investigate the yeast growth and astaxanthin production under controlled conditions. In addition, separate saccharification and fermentation (SHF) strategy was implemented, whereby rapeseed meal hydrolysis was performed in a separate vessel and prior to *X. dendrorhous* fermentation. Two types of rapeseed meal hydrolysates treated by different enzymes (Accellerase® 1500 and pectinase) were used.

Figure 4 shows the growth profile of *X. dendrorhous* in two different rapeseed meal hydrolysates and Table 5 presents the main fermentation data of these trials. The composition of rapeseed meal hydrolysates derived from Accellerase® 1500 consisted of 13 g/l of total sugars (glucose, xylose and galactose). The utilisation of this hydrolysate as fermentation medium resulted in 14.3 g/l of biomass and 3.6 mg/l of astaxanthin (*P*). By observing the substrate consumption profile, it can be noted that glucose was used as a primary carbon source, and upon its depletion, hemicellulosic derived sugars were then consumed. The astaxanthin yield on cell biomass ( $Y_{P/X}$ ), was equal to 250 µg/g of produced biomass. These values were higher compared to those obtained in shake flask fermentations utilising rapeseed meal hydrolysates as substrate (12 g/l of biomass and 3.2 g/l of astaxanthin). It is evident that the optimised process conditions led to higher biomass and astaxanthin production, due to the provision of better dispersion of nutrients and adequate oxygen supply in the bioreactor, in which had a positive impact on cell growth and astaxanthin production.

Batch bioreactor fermentations using pectinase derived hydrolysates were also carried out, with the hydrolysates consisting of 20 g/l of total monomeric sugars and glycerol (52 g/l) that was sourced from the enzyme formulation as previously mentioned. *X. dendrorhous* cultivation in this

1 hydrolysate was most preferable for biomass (42 g/l). The concentration of astaxanthin,  $P$  (10.2  
2 mg/l) was positively correlated with high biomass production. These data clearly showed that  
3 glycerol acted as additional carbon source for biomass production; upon exhaustion of the main  
4 sugars in the media, glycerol started to be consumed as demonstrated by the diauxic growth curve  
5 on this occasion (indicated by an arrow in Figure 5B).

6 Total biomass production was positively correlated with increased sugars concentration in all  
7 tested hydrolysates. However, in terms of biomass yield ( $Y_{x/s}$ ), it was found out that Accellerase®  
8 treated hydrolysates best supported biomass production (Table 5). Furthermore, the biomass yield  
9 was higher under controlled environment (bioreactor) as compared to shake flasks fermentation  
10 using similar hydrolysates. In terms of astaxanthin yield on biomass ( $Y_{P/X}$ ), the values for both  
11 hydrolysates were similar ( $\sim 250 \mu\text{g/g}$ ), indicating that the type of carbon source did not affect the  
12 accumulation of astaxanthin. In comparison with semi-defined media with 30 g/l of glucose as  
13 initial carbon source, it was expected that biomass production was higher (16 g/l) compared to  
14 Accellerase® 1500 treated hydrolysates (14 g/l) that contained less carbon source available (13 g/l),  
15 however, astaxanthin production ( $P$ ) were similar (3.6 mg/l) in both fermentations. This suggests  
16 the ability of the particular yeast to produce higher intracellular astaxanthin in Accellerase® 1500  
17 hydrolysates ( $Y_{p/x} = 251 \mu\text{g g}$ ) as compared to semi-defined media ( $Y_{p/x} = 221 \mu\text{g/g}$ ). The complex  
18 composition of the rapeseed meal hydrolysates, composed of mixtures of sugars, protein and other  
19 nutrients, seems to promote astaxanthin production in *X. dendrorhous*.

### 20 3.3.3 Batch fermentation (Pre-hydrolysis and fermentation)

21 The possibility of conducting pre-hydrolysis and fermentation (pSSF) strategy was  
22 investigated, with a view to improve yeast growth as well as astaxanthin production in *X.*  
23 *dendrorhous*. pSSF strategy is an improvement of simultaneous saccharification and fermentation  
24 (SSF) strategy that has been widely used in bioethanol production by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*  
25 [35]. In SSF strategy, enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulosic material and microbial fermentation is

1 performed simultaneously. However, problems often arise mainly due to the difference in the  
2 optimal temperatures of the enzymatic hydrolysis and yeast fermentation. In our case, the  
3 significant difference between optimal temperature for enzymatic hydrolysis of rapeseed meal and  
4 *X. dendrorhous* growth rendered the SSF approach not feasible. To this end, the vessel temperature  
5 was set at 50 °C for 24 h (the optimal temperature for enzyme hydrolysis), followed by reducing the  
6 temperature to 20 °C (optimal temperature for *X. dendrorhous*), prior to inoculation.

7 Figure 5 5 depicts the growth profile of *X. dendrorhous* cultivated in a 2-litre bioreactor using  
8 pSSF approach in Accellerase® 1500 hydrolysates (A) and pectinase hydrolysates (B). In the case  
9 of pSSF using Accellerase® 1500 hydrolysates, total astaxanthin production was 30 % lower than  
10 in SHF cultivation process utilising the same hydrolysates. This might occur due to the presence of  
11 rapeseed biomass in the bioreactor, in which led into collisions between rapeseed meal biomass and  
12 yeast cells during agitation and eventually cell disruption.

13 In the case of pectinase derived rapeseed meal hydrolysates, it was observed that the sugars  
14 released during hydrolysis step were used as primary carbon sources. Generally, about 70 g/l of  
15 total carbon sources (~ 22 g/l sugars and ~48 g/l glycerol) were available for yeast consumption. It  
16 was observed that glycerol started to be consumed once available sugars were exhausted in the  
17 media, demonstrating that cells were able to divert their metabolism towards glycerol consumption.  
18 It is interesting to observe that during the period of glycerol metabolism, glucose was also released  
19 in the hydrolysates by the slow activity of pectinase on rapeseed meal at 20°C (as opposed to  
20 optimum temperature of pectinase activity at 50°C). At the end of the fermentation, glycerol was  
21 completely consumed by the yeast and about 3.5 g/l of excess glucose remained in the media. In the  
22 pSSF approach with pectinase derived rapeseed meal hydrolysates similar results for astaxanthin  
23 production were noted as in batch fermentation with separate hydrolysis and fermentation  
24 experiment (~10 mg/l).

### 1    3.4    Glass beads / solvent extraction

2            Figure 6 presents the results from the astaxanthin extraction with glass beads aiming to  
3    disrupt the yeast cell, coupled with different types of solvent to extract astaxanthin simultaneously.  
4    The highest extraction was achieved with acetone (95 %, w/w), followed by DMSO: Acetone (84  
5    %, w/w). Methanol and ethanol were not significantly different from each other (54-58 %, w/w),  
6    whereas DMSO on its own resulted in low extraction yield (42 %, w/w) and water in the lowest (14  
7    %, w/w). This might have occurred due to the fact that acetone has good permeability through the  
8    cell wall and membrane of *X. dendrorhous* as well as high solubility to astaxanthin [48]. The  
9    difference in the extraction yield obtained with the different solvents could be attributes to the  
10   differences in their polarity which were: Ethanol (4.3) < methanol (5.1) < acetone (5.4) < DMSO  
11   (7.2) < water (9.00) [48]. As astaxanthin contains both polar (at the end of the molecule) and non-  
12   polar moieties (in the middle of the molecule) in its chemical structure [49], the use of slightly polar  
13   solvent helps to extract astaxanthin from the cell wall membrane of the yeast that might be attached  
14   by the non-covalent binding to specific protein [50].

15            In order to understand better the mechanisms of astaxanthin extractability, the solubility of  
16   astaxanthin in different solvents were tested (Table 6). The highest solubility of pure astaxanthin  
17   was observed with a combination of DMSO and acetone (1:1), whereas a lower astaxanthin  
18   solubility was found in DMSO and acetone alone. The solubility of astaxanthin is highly correlated  
19   with polarity of the solvent used. The highest astaxanthin solubility was observed a when mixture  
20   of DMSO: Acetone (1:1) was used with 2.03 mg/ml. As for astaxanthin solubility in individual  
21   solvent, highest solubility of astaxanthin was observed when DMSO was used, that correlated to the  
22   high polarity of DMSO. Even though astaxanthin has low solubility in acetone (0.55 mg/ml) as  
23   compared to DMSO, it has high permeability through the yeast cell wall and resulted in higher  
24   astaxanthin extractability from the yeast cells [48]. The mechanism of astaxanthin extraction with  
25   organic solvents occur by permeation of solvents through the cell wall and cell membrane, and  
26   subsequently interact with astaxanthin compound using Van der Waals forces. This



solvent/astaxanthin complex will diffuse across the cell membrane and remain dissolve in solvents [51].

Several studies report the utilisation of glass beads to extract intracellular products from various yeast species using beads extraction on wider aspects but are limited with regards to astaxanthin extraction form *X. dendrorhous*. Glass beads extraction was achieved by disrupting the yeast cells via bead collision zones by compaction or shear force with energy transfer from beads to the cells [52]. Glass beads accompanied with acetone were used to rupture *Sporodiobolus pararoseus* and *Rhodotorula mucilaginosa*. Results showed that about 66 % (w/w) and 52 % (w/w) of carotenoids extractability was obtained as compared to standard DMSO method [53]. In different study, two different methods (glass beads in bead beater and DMSO/solvent) of astaxanthin extraction in four different strains of *Phaffia rhodozyma* cells was investigated [26]. Similar results were obtained between these methods (275 – 276 µg/g). However, the DMSO disruption method is more rapid than glass bead disruption process, in which multiple samples can be processed at the same time, the DMSO method is considered more suitable for large number of samples. However, the drawbacks of this process are that it is a non-selective extraction process where all polar/non-polar compounds were extracted depending on the solvents used during the process.

The resultant morphology of the *X. dendrorhous* cells after glass beads treatment was studied by environmental scanning microscopy (Figure 7). Before the glass beads treatment, cells were in intact sphere shapes with a smooth surface. After treatment, small particles (< 5 µm) were produced as a result of beads abrasion (Figure 7B), as compared with intact cells before disruption (Figure 7A). The small sized cells and debris produced after glass beads treatment resulted in an increased surface area for subsequent solvent extraction, leading to higher astaxanthin extractability. Apparently, at this point, astaxanthin extraction was highly dependent on the solubility and polarity of organic solvents used, as the degree of cell disruption was already high. For example, in glass beads accompanied with water extraction, minimum astaxanthin pigments were extracted even though the cells were ruptured. This is attributed to the ability of the solvent

used to penetrate the debris/cells to extract the pigments as well as astaxanthin was not soluble in water. It can be deduced that the types of organic solvents used in astaxanthin extraction are very crucial for the success rate of the process.

Yeast derived astaxanthin is characterised as natural and can be used as an ingredient in products formulation including feed, food and as a colourant. The experiments demonstrated that the application of mechanical extraction (glass beads) gave high degree of cell disruption and subsequently increased astaxanthin extraction by solvent. This is considered as a feasible method to be used in large scale as it is simple, cheap and reliable and does not require special instrumentation. Moreover, further studies on the astaxanthin extract are required to investigate the stability of the extract in different types of solvents. Investigating the performance of the extracted astaxanthin in product formulation such as in feed and colourant, is a key future step for the biotechnological production of astaxanthin.

#### **4 Conclusion**

One of the challenges in natural astaxanthin production is associated with its expensive production route compared to synthetically produced astaxanthin, as it involves a series of processes including fermentation and downstream processing. Improvement of the process should target high astaxanthin yields in order to render the overall process more valuable and allow for microbial astaxanthin to compete with synthetically produced astaxanthin. Rapeseed meal holds potential as substrate for the microbial production of astaxanthin. This work demonstrated a process for rapeseed meal bioconversion into astaxanthin by *X. dendrorhous* DSMZ 5626. The process flow starts from screening commercial enzymes for their potential as biocatalysts for rapeseed meal conversion into carbon source rich hydrolysate, down to fermentation optimisation and extraction process. This approach could offer a sustainable alternative to chemically synthesised astaxanthin and can stimulate the circular bioeconomy through the utilisation of low value, abundant resources.

1

## 2    **5       Acknowledgments**

3    Financial support has been provided by the Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia under Academic  
4    Training Scheme Sponsorship.

## 5    **References**

- 6    [1]    Krautgartner R, Audran X, Erik Rehder L, Boshnakova M, Dobrescu M, Rossetti A. Oilseeds  
7       market Update. USDA Foreign Agric. Serv. 2017;
- 8    [2]    Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs Department of Agriculture,  
9       Environment and Rural Affairs (Northern Ireland) Welsh Assembly, The Department for  
10      Rural Affairs and Heritage The Scottish Government R & ES & AS. Agriculture In  
11      the United Kingdom 2016. 2017.
- 12    [3]    Wang R, Shaarani SM, Godoy LC, Melikoglu M, Vergara CS, Koutinas A, et al.  
13       Bioconversion of rapeseed meal for the production of a generic microbial feedstock. Enzyme  
14       Microb. Technol. 2010;47:77–83.
- 15    [4]    Lomascolo A, Uzan-Boukhris E, Sigoillot J-C, Fine F. Rapeseed and sunflower meal: a  
16       review on biotechnology status and challenges. Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 2012;95:1105–  
17       14.
- 18    [5]    Jeong H-S, Kim H-Y, Ahn SH, Oh SC, Yang I, Choi I-G. Effects of combination processes  
19       on the extraction of pectins from rapeseed cake (*Brassica napus* L.). Food Chem.  
20       2013;139:9–15.
- 21    [6]    Pustjens AM, Schols HA, Kabel MA, Gruppen H. Characterisation of cell wall  
22       polysaccharides from rapeseed (*Brassica napus*) meal. Carbohydr. Polym. 2013;98:1650–6.
- 23    [7]    Uçkun Kiran E, Salakkam A, Trzcinski AP, Bakir U, Webb C. Enhancing the value of  
24       nitrogen from rapeseed meal for microbial oil production. Enzyme Microb. Technol.  
25       2012;50:337–42.
- 26    [8]    El-Beltagi HES, Mohamed AA. Variations in fatty acid composition, glucosinolate profile  
27       and some phytochemical contents in selected oil seed rape (*Brassica napus* L.) cultivars.  
28       Grasas y Aceites 2010;61:143–50.
- 29    [9]    Jeong H-SS, Kim H-YY, Ahn SH, Oh SC, Yang I, Choi I-GG. Optimization of enzymatic  
30       hydrolysis conditions for extraction of pectin from rapeseed cake (*Brassica napus* L.) using  
31       commercial enzymes. Food Chem. 2014;157:332–8.
- 32    [10]    Chatzifragkou A, Papanikolaou S, Kopsahelis N, Kachrimanidou V, Dorado MP, Koutinas  
33       A. Biorefinery development through utilization of biodiesel industry by-products as sole  
34       fermentation feedstock for 1,3-propanediol production. Bioresour. Technol. 2014;159:167–  
35       75.

- 1 [11] Chen K, Zhang H, Miao Y, Wei P, Chen J. Simultaneous saccharification and fermentation  
2 of acid-pretreated rapeseed meal for succinic acid production using *Actinobacillus*  
3 *succinogenes*. *Enzyme Microb. Technol.* 2011;48:339–44.
- 4 [12] García IL, López JA, Dorado MP, Kopsahelis N, Alexandri M, Papanikolaou S, et al.  
5 Evaluation of by-products from the biodiesel industry as fermentation feedstock for poly(3-  
6 hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate) production by *Cupriavidus necator*. *Bioresour.*  
7 *Technol.* 2013;130:16–22.
- 8 [13] Ambati RR, Moi PS, Ravi S, Aswathanarayana RG. Astaxanthin: Sources, extraction,  
9 stability, biological activities and its commercial applications - A review. *Mar. Drugs*  
10 2014;12:128–52.
- 11 [14] Lobo V, Patil A, Phatak A, Chandra N. Free radicals, antioxidants and functional foods:  
12 Impact on human health. *Pharmacogn. Rev.* 2010;4:118–26.
- 13 [15] Fassett RG, Coombes JS. Astaxanthin: A potential therapeutic agent in cardiovascular  
14 disease. *Mar. Drugs* 2011;9:447–65.
- 15 [16] Ip P-F, Wong K-H, Chen F. Enhanced production of astaxanthin by the green microalga  
16 *Chlorella zofingiensis* in mixotrophic culture. *Process Biochem.* 2004;39:1761–6.
- 17 [17] Baker R, Günther C. The role of carotenoids in consumer choice and the likely benefits from  
18 their inclusion into products for human consumption. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.*  
19 2004;15:484–8.
- 20 [18] Panel EF. Scientific Opinion on the Safety and Efficacy of Synthetic Astaxanthin as Feed  
21 Additive for Salmon and Trout, Other Fish, Ornamental Fish, Crustaceans and Ornamental  
22 Birds. *EFSA J.* 2014;12:3724.
- 23 [19] Bhatt PC, Ahmad M, Panda BP. Enhanced bioaccumulation of astaxanthin in *Phaffia*  
24 *rhodozyma* by utilising low - cost agro products as fermentation substrate. 2012;
- 25 [20] Panis G, Carreon JR. Commercial astaxanthin production derived by green alga  
26 *Haematococcus pluvialis*: A microalgae process model and a techno-economic assessment all  
27 through production line. *Algal Res.* 2016;18:175–90.
- 28 [21] Guerin M, Huntley ME, Olaizola M. *Haematococcus* astaxanthin: applications for human  
29 health and nutrition [Internet]. *Trends Biotechnol.* 2003 [cited 2017 Apr 5];21:210–6.  
30 Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0167779903000787>
- 31 [22] Rodrigues IM, Carvalho MGVS, Rocha JMS. Increasing the protein content of rapeseed meal  
32 by enzymatic hydrolysis of carbohydrates. *BioResources* 2014;9:2010–25.
- 33 [23] Sari YW, Bruins ME, Sanders JPM. Enzyme assisted protein extraction from rapeseed,  
34 soybean, and microalgae meals. *Ind. Crops Prod.* 2013;43:78–83.
- 35 [24] Sluiter A, Hames B, Ruiz RO, Scarlata C, Sluiter J, Templeton D, et al. Determination of  
36 Structural Carbohydrates and Lignin in Biomass. *Laboratory ANalytical Procedure (LAP).*  
37 2004.
- 38 [25] AOAC. AOAC: Official Methods of Analysis (Volume 1). *Off. Method Anal.* AOAC  
39 1990;15.

- 1 [26] Sedmak JJ, Weerasinghe DK, Jolly SO. Extraction and Quantification of Astaxanthin from  
2 *Phaffia Rhodozyma*. *Biotechnol. Tech.* 1990;4:107–12.
- 3 [27] Mintec. Rapeseed oil : commodity factsheet. 2012.
- 4 [28] Leming R, Lember A. Chemical Composition of Expeller-Extracted and Cold-Pressed  
5 Rapeseed Cake. 2002;103–9.
- 6 [29] Butardo VM, Sreenivasulu N. Tailoring Grain Storage Reserves for a Healthier Rice Diet and  
7 its Comparative Status with Other Cereals. *Int. Rev. Cell Mol. Biol.* 2016;323:31–70.
- 8 [30] Bell JM. Nutrients and toxicants in rapeseed meal: a review. *J. Anim. Sci.* 1984;58:996–  
9 1010.
- 10 [31] Briones R, Serrano L, Labidi J. Valorization of some lignocellulosic agro-industrial residues  
11 to obtain biopolyols. *J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol.* 2012;87:244–9.
- 12 [32] Egües I, Alriols MG, Herseczki Z, Marton G, Labidi J. Hemicelluloses obtaining from  
13 rapeseed cake residue generated in the biodiesel production process. *J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*  
14 2010;16:293–8.
- 15 [33] Guan X, Yao H. Optimization of Viscozyme L-assisted extraction of oat bran protein using  
16 response surface methodology. *Food Chem.* 2008;106:345–51.
- 17 [34] Hanmoungjai P, Pyle DL, Niranjan K. Enzyme-assisted water-extraction of oil and protein  
18 from rice bran. *J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol.* 2002;77:771–6.
- 19 [35] Taherzadeh MJ, Karimi K. Enzyme-based hydrolysis processes for ethanol from  
20 lignocellulosic materials: A review. 2007.
- 21 [36] Yoo CG. Pretreatment and fractionation of lignocellulosic biomass for production of biofuel  
22 and value-added products. 2012;
- 23 [37] Liu Y. Investigation of Major Biochemical Factors for Improved Carotenoid (Astaxanthin)  
24 Production by the Yeast *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous*. 2006;
- 25 [38] Marova I, Certik M, Breierova E. Production of Enriched Biomass by Carotenogenic Yeasts -  
26 Application of Whole-Cell Yeast Biomass to Production of Pigments and Other Lipid  
27 Compounds. *Biomass - Detect. Prod. Usage* 2011;345–84.
- 28 [39] Yamane YI, Higashida K, Nakashimada Y, Kakizono T, Nishio N. Influence of oxygen and  
29 glucose on primary metabolism and astaxanthin production by *Phaffia rhodozyma* in batch  
30 and fed-batch cultures: Kinetic and stoichiometric analysis. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*  
31 1997;63:4471–8.
- 32 [40] Marcoleta A, Niklitschek M, Wozniak A, Lozano C, Alcaíno J, Baeza M, et al. “Glucose and  
33 ethanol-dependent transcriptional regulation of the astaxanthin biosynthesis pathway in  
34 *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous*.” *BMC Microbiol.* 2011;11:190.
- 35 [41] Thomson JM, Gaucher EA, Burgan MF, De Kee DW, Li T, Aris JP, et al. Resurrecting  
36 ancestral alcohol dehydrogenases from yeast. *Nat. Genet.* 2005;37:630–5.
- 37 [42] Sanpietro LMD. Studies of Astaxanthin Biosynthesis in *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous*  
38 (*Phaffia rhodozyma*). Effect of Inhibitors and Low Temperature. *Yeast* 1998;14:1007–16.

- 1 [43] Mata-Gómez LC, Montañez JC, Méndez-Zavala A, Aguilar CN. Biotechnological production  
2 of carotenoids by yeasts: an overview. *Microb. Cell Fact.* 2014;13:12.
- 3 [44] Wang C, Zhou F, Yang Z, Wang W, Yu F, Wu Y, et al. Hydrolysis of cellulose into reducing  
4 sugar via hot-compressed ethanol/water mixture. *Biomass and Bioenergy* 2012;42:143–50.
- 5 [45] Parajó JC, Santos V, Vázquez M, Cruz JM. Production of carotenoids by  
6 *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous* growing on enzymatic hydrolysates of prehydrolysed  
7 wood. *Food Chem.* 1997;
- 8 [46] Jirasripongpun K, Pewlong W, Natsathmonthra W, Suthiyaporn S. Carotenoids Production  
9 by *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous* Mutant Grown on Molasses. *Kasetsart J. Nat. Sci.*  
10 2007;041:667–74.
- 11 [47] Ramírez J, Obledo N, Arellano M, Herrera E. Astaxanthin production by *Phaffia rhodozyma*  
12 in a fedbatch culture using a low cost medium feeding. *e-Gnosis* 2006;4:0–9.
- 13 [48] Yin C, Yang S, Liu X, Yan H. Efficient extraction of astaxanthin from *phaffia rhodozyma*  
14 with polar and non-polar solvents after acid washing. *Chinese J. Chem. Eng.* 2013;21:776–  
15 80.
- 16 [49] Blasko A, Belagyi J, Dergez T, Deli J, Papp G, Papp T, et al. Effect of polar and non-polar  
17 carotenoids on *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous* membranes by EPR. *Eur. Biophys. J.*  
18 2008;37:1097–104.
- 19 [50] Amaro HM, Fernandes F, Valentão P, Andrade PB, Sousa-Pinto I, Malcata FX, et al. Effect  
20 of Solvent System on Extractability of Lipidic Components of *Scenedesmus obliquus* (M2-1)  
21 and *Gloeotheca* sp. on Antioxidant Scavenging Capacity Thereof. *Mar. Drugs* 2015;13:6453–  
22 71.
- 23 [51] Halim R, Danquah MK, Webley PA. Extraction of oil from microalgae for biodiesel  
24 production: A review. *Biotechnol. Adv.* 2012;30:709–32.
- 25 [52] Duarte SH, Santos P dos, Michelin M, Oliveira SM de P, Martínez J, Maugeri F. Recovery  
26 of yeast lipids using different cell disruption techniques and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> extraction.  
27 *Biochem. Eng. J.* 2017;125:230–7.
- 28 [53] Lopes NA, Remedi RD, dos Santos Sá C, Burkert CAV, de Medeiros Burkert JF. Different  
29 cell disruption methods for obtaining carotenoids by *Sporodiobolus pararoseus* and  
30 *Rhodothorula mucilaginosa*. *Food Sci. Biotechnol.* 2017;26:759–66.
- 31 [54] Sun S, Wen J, Sun S, Sun RC. Systematic evaluation of the degraded products evolved from  
32 the hydrothermal pretreatment of sweet sorghum stems. *Biotechnol Biofuel* 2015; 8: 37.

33

34

1 **Tables**

2

3 *Table 1: Details of the industrial enzymes used in the study*

Enzyme	Source	Main Activity	Side activities	Activity	Stabiliser/ Protectant
<b>Viscozyme® L</b>	<i>Aspergillus aculeatus</i>	Endoglucanase	Xylanase	100 FBG/g	Sucrose, NaCl
			Cellulase		
<b>Cellulase</b>	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	Endo-glucanase	Hemicellulase	~ 0.8 unit/mg	Not given
			-		
<b>Pectinase</b>	<i>Aspergillus aculeatus</i>	Polygalacturonase	Cellulase, β- Galactosidase	≥ 3800 unit/ml	Glycerol
<b>Accellerase® 1500</b>	<i>Trichoderma reesei</i>	Exoglucanase, Endoglucanase and β- Glucosidase	Hemicellulases	2200-2800 CMC unit/g	Not given

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16

*Table 2: Chemical composition of rapeseed meal*

Composition	Percentage (% <i>, w/w</i> )
Oil	16.7 ± 0.1
Protein	25.3 ± 0.2
Lignin	18.0 ± 4.6
Ash	5.3 ± 0.1
Moisture	6.8 ± 0.1
Sugars (% carbohydrate)	34.2 ± 6.2
Glucose	20.2 ± 2.3
Galactose	2.9 ± 0.5
Arabinose	5.9 ± 0.7
Xylose	1.6 ± 0.2
Fructose	0.3 ± 0.2
Fucose	0.2 ± 0.1
Glucoronic acid	0.4 ± 0.3
Galacturonic acid	2.8 ± 0.1



Table 3: Effect of thermal pre-treatment (at 126 °C and 135 °C) of rapeseed meal suspension (10 %, w/v) followed by 15% (v/v) of Accellerase 1500 treatment for 24 h on hydrolysis yield and sugar concentrations

Temperature (T°C)	Time (min)	Hydrolysis Yield (%)			Concentration (g/l)		
		Glu	Xyl	Gal	Glu	Xyl	Gal
Control (no pre-treatment)		29.82 (0.31) <sup>a</sup>	19.82 (0.36) <sup>a</sup>	79.28 (1.43) <sup>a</sup>	6.01 (0.06) <sup>a</sup>	0.95 (0.02) <sup>a</sup>	3.81 (0.07) <sup>a</sup>
126	15	37.37 (0.22) <sup>cd</sup>	15.59 (0.32) <sup>a</sup>	62.37 (1.27) <sup>a</sup>	7.54 (0.04) <sup>cd</sup>	0.74 (0.02) <sup>a</sup>	2.97 (0.06) <sup>a</sup>
126	30	40.44 (2.12) <sup>bc</sup>	16.97 (0.82) <sup>b</sup>	67.88 (3.27) <sup>b</sup>	8.15 (0.43) <sup>bc</sup>	0.81 (0.04) <sup>b</sup>	3.24 (0.16) <sup>b</sup>
126	60	34.25 (0.15) <sup>c</sup>	16.67 (0.09) <sup>b</sup>	66.69 (0.36) <sup>b</sup>	6.91 (0.03) <sup>c</sup>	0.79 (0.01) <sup>b</sup>	3.18 (0.02) <sup>b</sup>
135	15	38.06 (0.66) <sup>b</sup>	16.74 (0.33) <sup>b</sup>	66.95 (1.32) <sup>b</sup>	7.67 (0.13) <sup>b</sup>	0.80 (0.02) <sup>b</sup>	3.19 (0.06) <sup>b</sup>
135	30	38.46 (0.31) <sup>b</sup>	15.72 (0.16) <sup>a</sup>	62.89 (0.63) <sup>a</sup>	7.75 (0.03) <sup>b</sup>	0.75 (0.01) <sup>b</sup>	3.00 (0.01) <sup>b</sup>

Different letters (a-c) represent significant differences among the data in the same column ( $p < 0.05$ )

*Table 4: Growth of X. dendrorhous and astaxanthin production in different rapeseed meal hydrolysates at 20 °C in flasks fermentation*

Rapeseed meal hydrolysates	Time (h)	Biomass (g/l)	P (mg/l)	Y <sub>P/X</sub> (µg/g)	Y <sub>X/S</sub> (g/g)	EtOH <sub>max</sub> (g/l)
Viscozyme® L	115	3.07 ± 0.07	0.4 ± 0.03	156 ± 11.75	0.07 ± 0.02	3.8 ± 0.13
Cellulase	115	14.63 ± 0.64	1.10 ± 0.18	71 ± 11.4	0.25 ± 0.01	6.92 ± 0.00
Pectinase	120	25.83 ± 1.52	6.71 ± 0.44	258 ± 1.83	0.46 ± 0.03	-
Accellerase® 1500	118	8.2 ± 0.01	2.69 ± 0.05	332 ± 12	0.84 ± 0.01	2.02 ± 0.15
Thermal treated plus Accellerase® 1500	140	11.95 ± 0.35	3.2 ± 0.4	271 ± 26.4	0.81 ± 0.05	0.5 ± 0.01

Y<sub>P/X</sub>: Yield of astaxanthin on biomass produced.

Y<sub>P/S</sub>: Yield of astaxanthin on substrate used. EtOH<sub>max</sub>: Maximum ethanol concentration produced during the fermentation

P: Astaxanthin production

X: Dry cell weight

*Table 5: Fermentation data of X. dendrorhous in batch bioreactor cultures of rapeseed meal hydrolysates and semi-defined media*

Hydrolysates	Time (h)	Total carbon concentration (g/l)	X (g/l)	P (mg/l)	Y <sub>p/x</sub> (µg/g)	Y <sub>x/s</sub> (g/g)
RSM+10% Accellerase®	112	17.66 ± 0.2	14.3 ± 0.9	3.6 ± 0.1	251 ± 5	0.81 ± 0.05
RSM + 10% Pectinase	113	72.1 ± 4.3	42.0 ± 0.4	10.2 ± 0.2	242 ± 6	0.58 ± 0.06
Semi – defined media (30 g/l glucose)	123	27.6 ± 1.1	16.3 ± 0.4	3.6 ± 0.1	221 ± 8	0.59 ± 0.01

*\*Fermentation conditions: agitation, 1 l/min; temperature, 20 °C; pH 6; agitation, 600 rpm*

Y<sub>P/X</sub>: Yield of astaxanthin on biomass produced.

Y<sub>P/S</sub>: Yield of astaxanthin on substrate used. EtOH<sub>max</sub>: Maximum ethanol concentration produced during the fermentation

P: Astaxanthin production

X: Dry cell weight

*Table 6: Solubility of astaxanthin in solvents after incubation for 24 h at 25 °C.*

Solvent	Concentration (mg/ml)
Water	0
Ethanol	0.038±0.004 <sup>a</sup>
Acetone	0.55±0.02 <sup>b</sup>
Methanol	0.04±0.002 <sup>a</sup>
Dimethyl Sulfoxide (DMSO)	1.64 ± 0.03 <sup>c</sup>
DMSO:Acetone (1:1)	2.03 ± 0.04 <sup>d</sup>

*Different letters represent significant difference between solvents by Tukey pairwise comparison ( $p<0.05$ ).*

## Figures

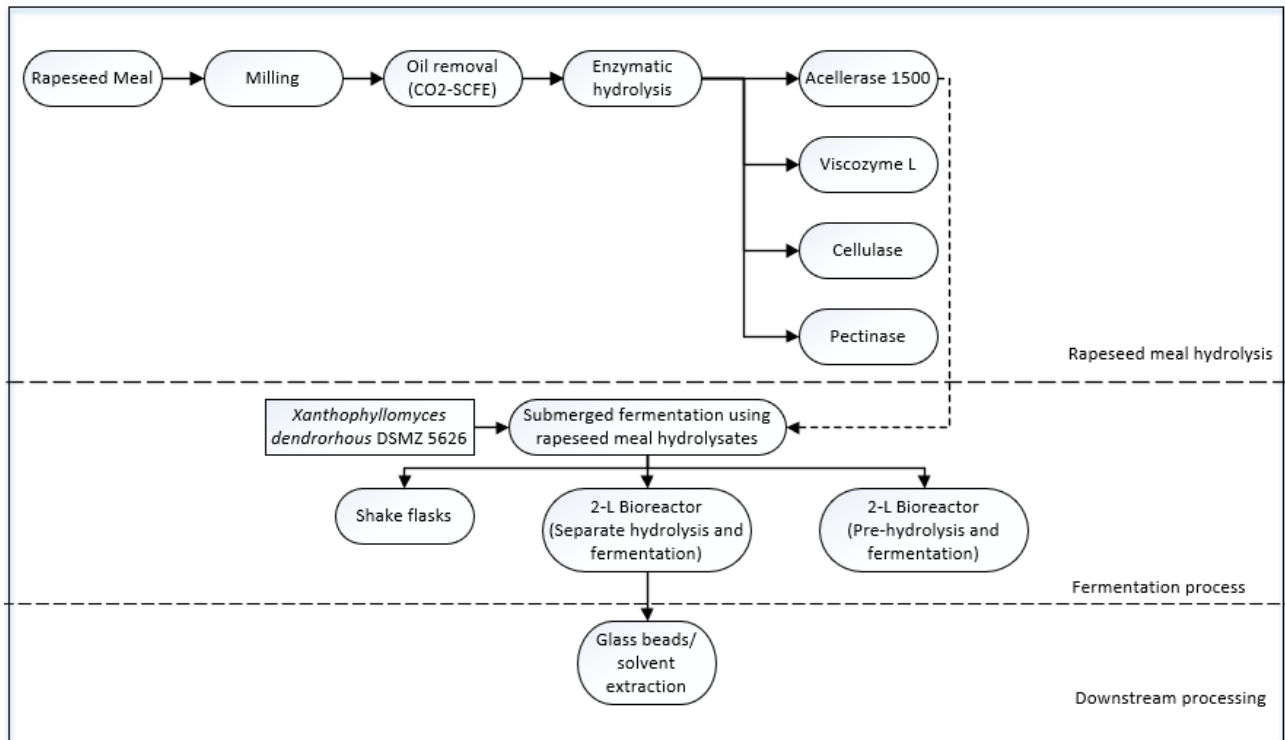
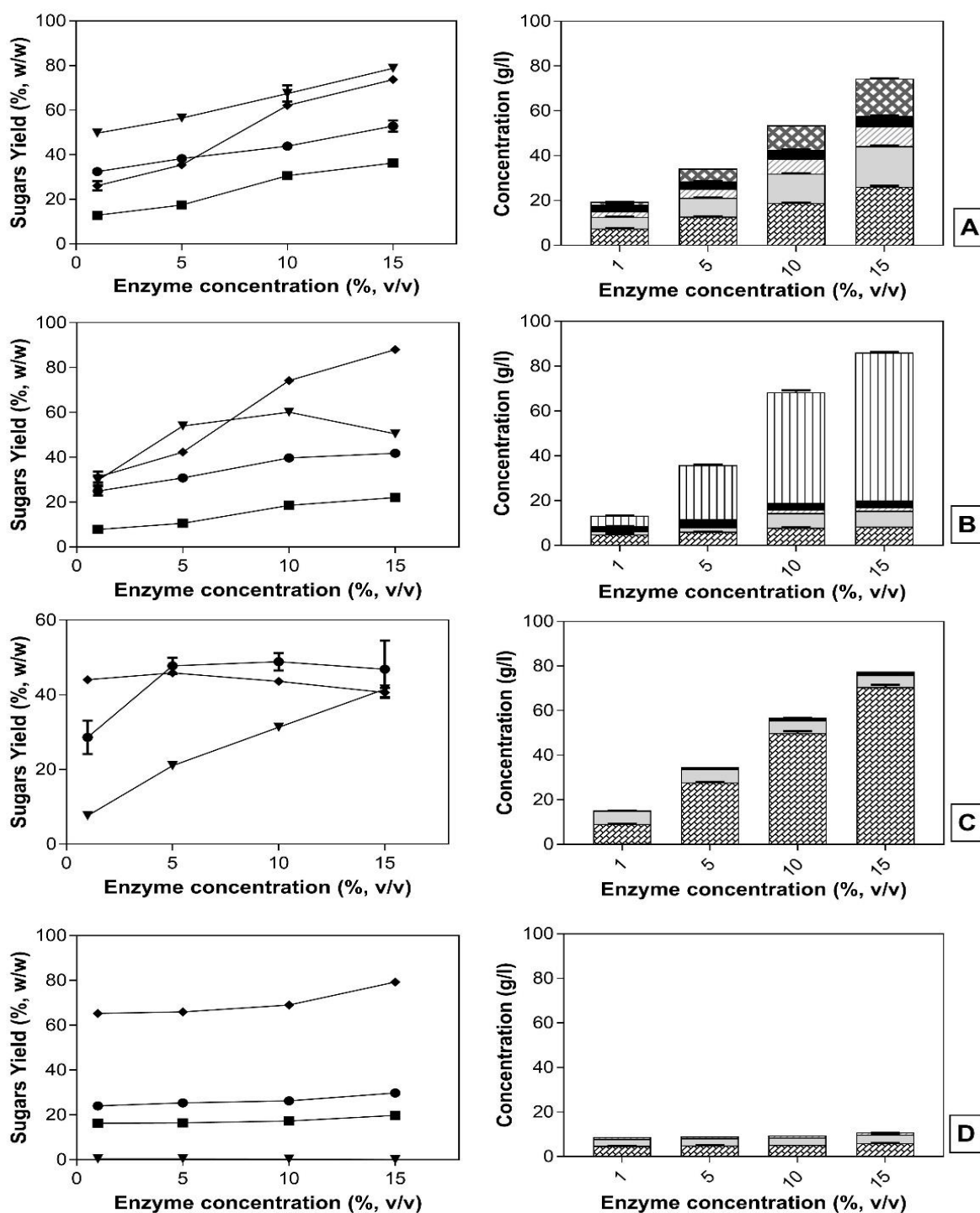


Figure 1: Schematic diagram of experimental procedure for astaxanthin production from rapeseed meal in *X. dendrorhous*.



*Figure 2: Effect of different enzyme concentrations on the total sugars released after 24 hrs of hydrolysis of 10% (w/v) rapeseed meal using commercial enzymes [Viscozyme® (A), pectinase (B), cellulase (C) and Accellerase® 1500 (D)]. Line graph represents the sugars yield (%), whereas the bar graph represents the concentration of sugars in rapeseed meal hydrolysates.*

*Symbols represent: ●- glucose, ■- xylose, ▼- arabinose, ◆- galactose, -glucose (g/l) - galactose (g/l), - xylose (g/l), - arabinose (g/l), - glycerol (g/l) and - fructose (g/l). \* Sugars yield is calculated based on the sugar present in the hydrolysates after deducting the initial sugars that were present in the enzyme solution per total sugar before the treatment*

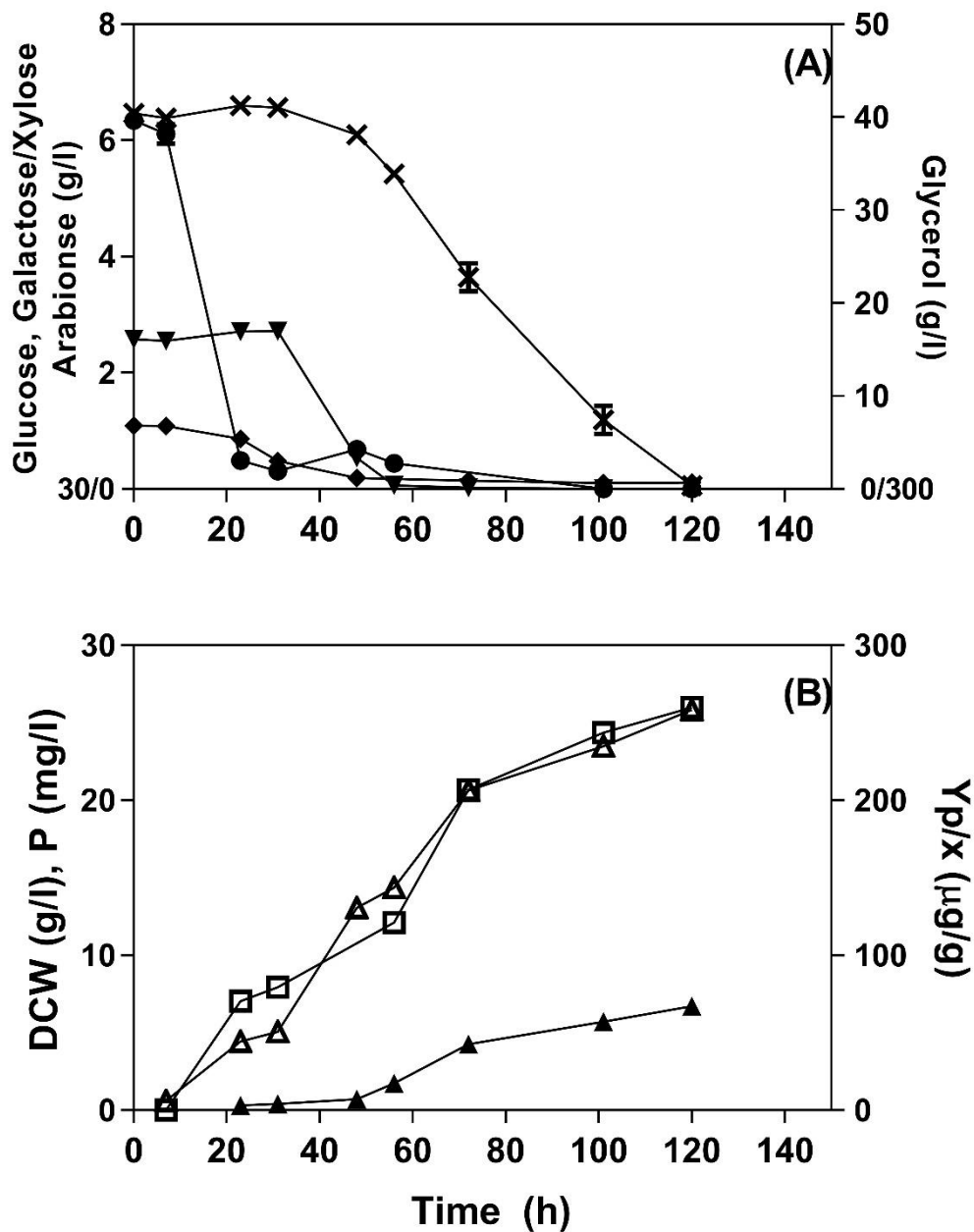


Figure 3: Kinetic profile of (A) carbon sources consumption and (B) product formation during *X. dendrorhous* growth in pectinase rapeseed meal hydrolysate in shake flasks.

Symbols represent: Glucose (●, g/l), arabinose (◆, g/l), galactose and xylose (▼, g/l), glycerol (×, g/l), yield of astaxanthin on biomass,  $Y_{p/x}$  (□, μg/g), astaxanthin production  $P$  (▲, mg/l), dry cell weight (Δ, g/l).

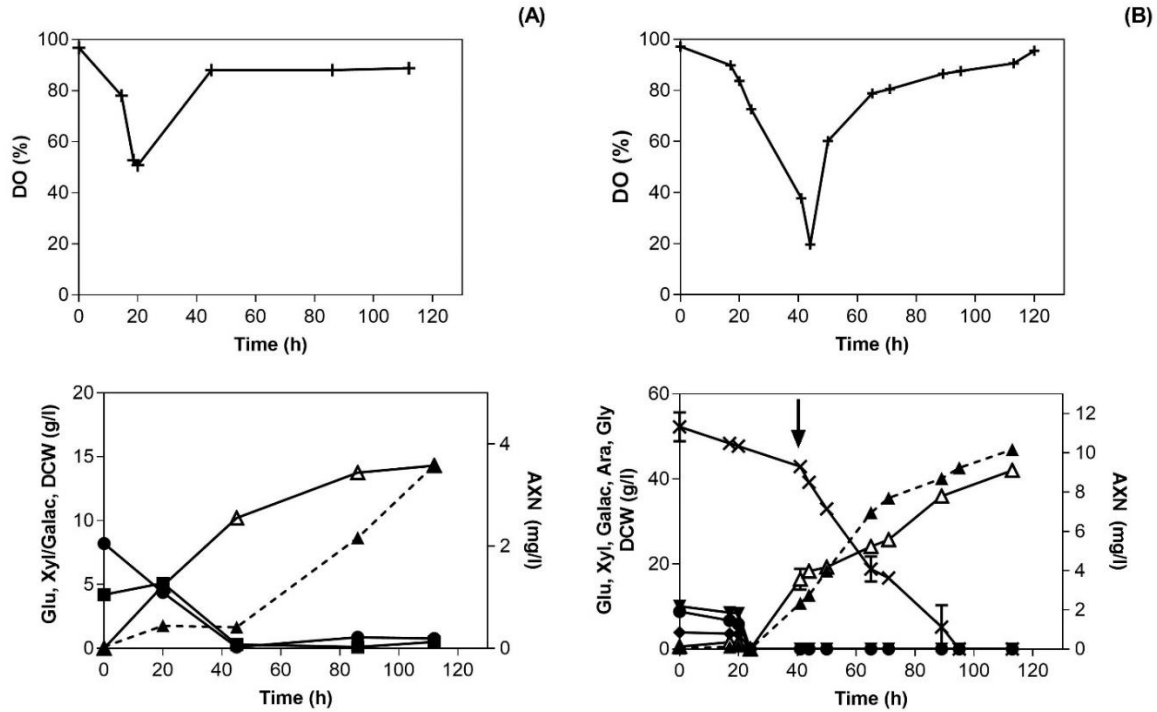


Figure 4: Growth profile of *X. dendrorhous* cultivated in 2-L stirred tank bioreactor with rapeseed meal hydrolysates as sole fermentation substrate with separate hydrolysis and fermentation strategy. A) Accellerase® 1500 treated hydrolysates (15% v/v of enzyme and 10% w/v of substrate); B) pectinase treated rapeseed meal hydrolysates (10% v/v of enzyme and 10% w/v of substrate).

Fermentation conditions: aeration, 1 l/min; temperature, 20 °C; pH 6.

Symbols represent: - astaxanthin, AXN (▲, µg/ml); glucose, Glu (●, g/l); xylose/ galactose, Xyl, Galac (▼, g/l), arabinose, Ara (◆, g/l); dry cell weight, DCW (Δ, g/l); glycerol, Gly (×, g/l); dissolved oxygen, DO (+, %).



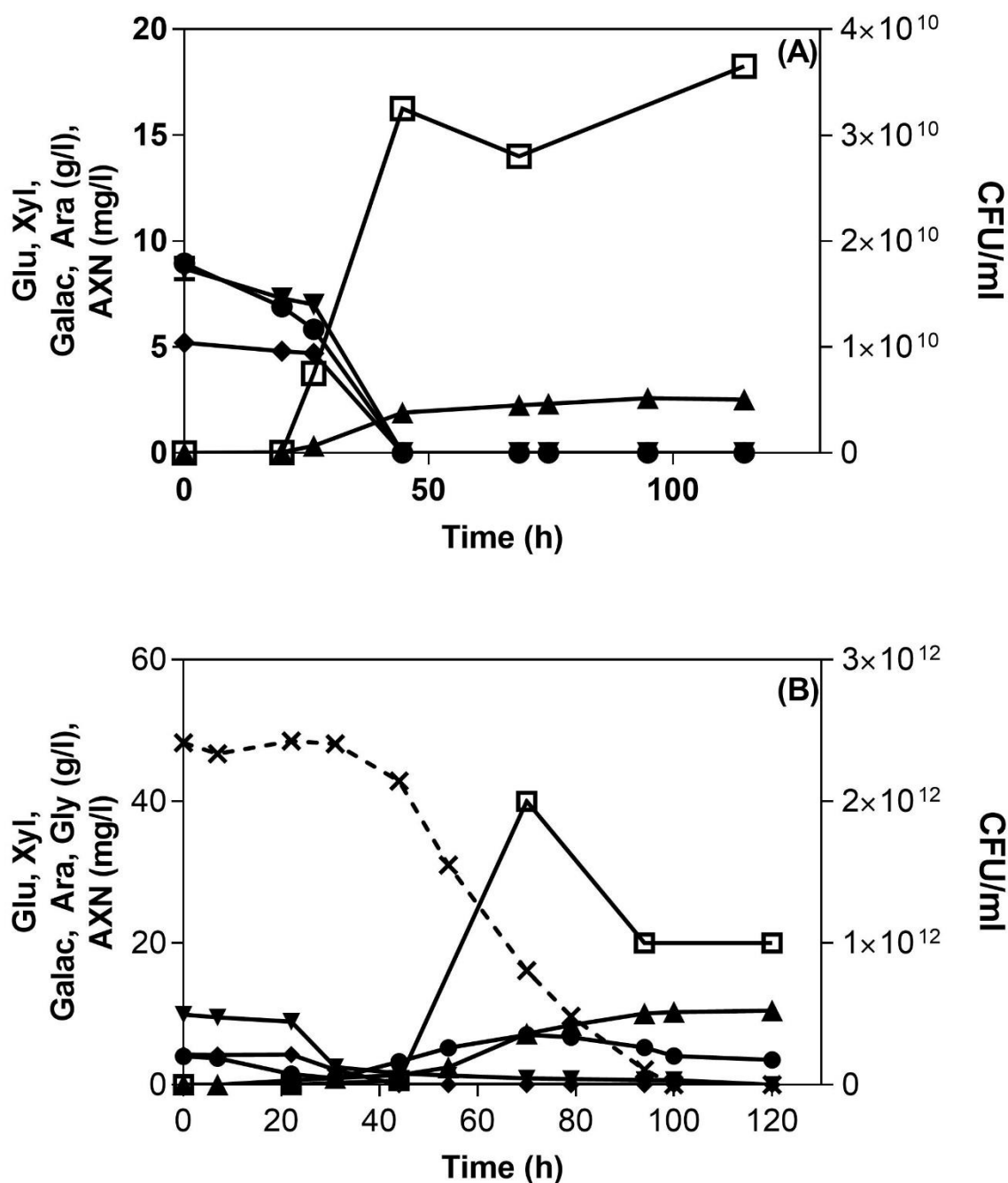
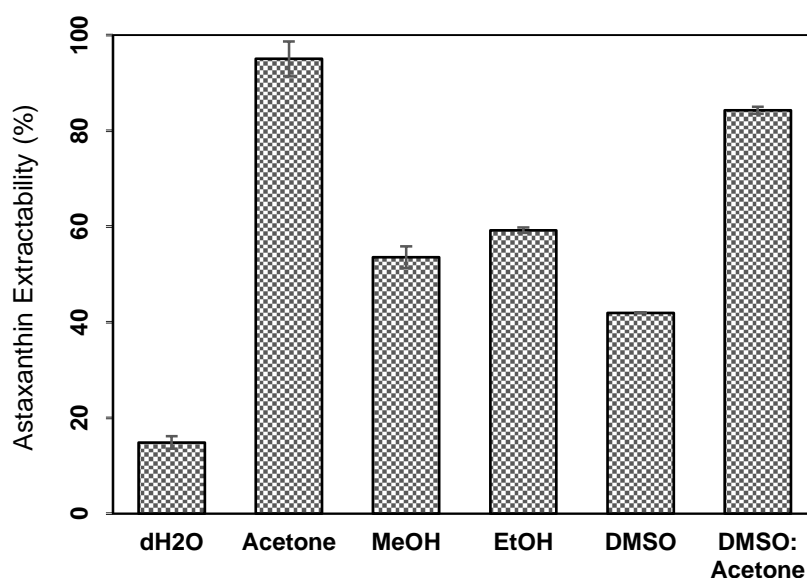


Figure 5: Growth profile of *X. dendrorhous* using prehydrolysis and fermentation approach. (A) 10% (v/v) Accellerase® 1500 in 10% (w/v) substrate; (B) 10% (v/v) pectinase in 10% (w/v) substrate

Hydrolysis conditions: agitation, 250 rpm; temperature, 50 °C; time, 24 h

Fermentation conditions: aeration, 1 l/min; agitation, 600 rpm; temperature, 20 °C; pH 6

Symbols represent: - astaxanthin, AXN (▲, µg/ml); glucose, Glu (●, g/l); xylose/ galactose, Xyl, Galac (▼, g/l); glycerol, Gly (×, g/l); CFU (□, CFU/ml)

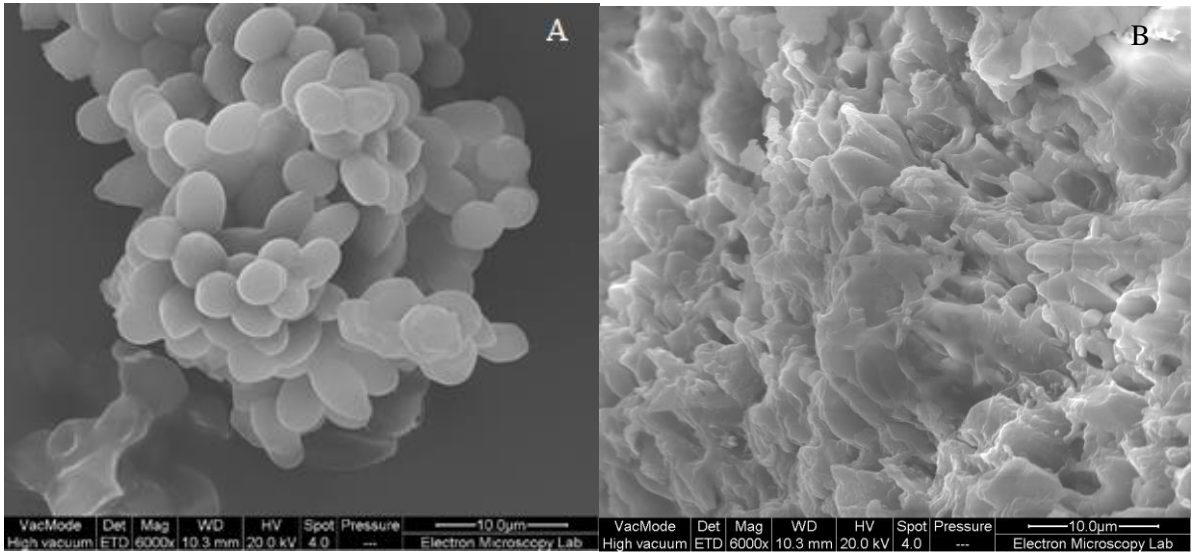


*Figure 6: Percentage of astaxanthin extractability (%) using glass beads (0.3 g) with different types of solvents. Extraction was performed at room temperature under agitation at 2000 rpm*

*Different letters show the significant difference between each treatment using Tukey pairwise comparison ( $p < 0.05$ ).*

*Abbreviations: dH<sub>2</sub>O (distilled water), MeOH (methanol), EtOH (ethanol), DMSO (dimethyl sulfoxide)*

1



2

3

4

5

*Figure 7: Scanning electron microscopy images X. dendrorhous cells A) intact cells, B) cells after treatment with glass beads (0.3 g) followed by acetone (100%) extraction.*